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ABSTRACT

Effective schools research has delivered some relatively concrete findings on important issues facing this country's educators. The result has been an extensive collection of effective schooling practices which have potential for increasing performance in young people. In reviewing effective schools literature, implications of the data were found to include a clear and direct relationship between student achievement and self-concept--the affective domain was found to be a critical component of school improvement efforts. This paper looks at the affective domain as it relates to effective schools; more specifically, it explores student self-concept and teacher expectations and attitudes as dependent variables in instructional settings. Student and teacher behaviors as predictors of school success are critically examined. Included in the analysis are factors of school and classroom climate. The paper concludes with recommendations that will move the findings toward implementation; that is, how to improve teacher expectations and attitudes and how to build positive and realistic self-concepts in students. Four appendices are included: (1) Flanders' Interaction Analysis; (2) The Metfessel, Michael and Kirsner Instrumentation of Bloom's Taxonomy of Educational Objectives; (3) Carkhuff's Interpersonal Process Scales; and (4) some common self-report inventories. (JMK)

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Research Summary Report

TOWARD EXCELLENCE: STUDENT AND TEACHER BEHAVIORS AS PREDICTORS OF SCHOOL SUCCESS

by
Leslie Crohn

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Prepared for Northwest Regional Exchange
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PREFACE

During 1983, the Northwest Regional Exchange sponsored the development of six focused research reports whose topics were identified by the states within the region-- Oregon, Alaska, Hawaii, Washington, Montana, Idaho, and the Pacific area. The titles of these publications include:

- Designing Excellence in Secondary Vocational Education: Applications of Principles from Effective Schooling and Successful Business Practices
- Toward Excellence: Student Teacher Behaviors as Predictors of School Success
- State Level Governance: Agenda for New Business or Old?
- A Call for School Reform
- Global Education: State of the Art
- Equitable Schooling Opportunity in a Multicultural Milieu

We have found this dissemination strategy an effective and efficient means of moving knowledge to the user level. Each report is in response to state defined information needs and is intended to influence the improvement of school practice. In each case, a specific knowledge(s) base, anchored in research and development, is analyzed and synthesized. The process is more telescopic than broadly comprehensive in nature. Elements of careful selectivity and professional judgment come into play as authors examine the information against the backdrops of current state needs, directions, and/or interests. As a result, research-based implications and recommendations for action emerge that are targeted and relevant to the region.

J.T. Pascarelli

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ABSTRACT

Currently, much attention is being directed toward improving our nation's schools. The effective schooling movement has been given top priority for consideration in many schools and districts in partial response to some recent national studies criticizing public education today.

Effective schools research has delivered some relatively concrete findings on important issues facing this country's educators. The result has been an extensive collection of effective schooling practices which have potential for increasing performance in young people.

In reviewing effective schools literature, we found implications of the data to include a clear and direct relationship between student achievement and self-concept--the affective domain was found to be a critical component of school improvement efforts.

In this paper, we look at the affective domain as it relates to effective schools; most specifically, we look at student self-concept and teacher expectations and attitudes as dependent variables in instructional settings. We critically examine student and teacher behaviors as predictors of school success. Included in our analysis are factors of school and classroom climate. We conclude with recommendations that will move our findings toward implementation--that is, how to improve teacher expectations and attitudes and how to build positive and realistic self-concepts in students.

The overarching focus of this publication is on school-based change. Client groups might include staff developers, administrators and others from policy and management levels who wish to be involved in the decision making process concerning school and instructional improvement.

We feel that to address issues of effective schools completely and accurately requires careful examination of affective elements of education as well.

I. INTRODUCTION

Purpose of the Study

Studies of affective development have profound implications for educators concerned with and committed to student growth and achievement. There can be no separation of human elements and skill elements in education. To be effective, teachers must be as knowledgeable about specific interpersonal communications skills as they are about the delivery of their subject skills to students. Though theoretical conflicts exist among values and skills, learning and training, these issues must be resolved if schools are to reach excellence in teaching and learning.

Researchers have clearly demonstrated the relationship between students' subjective and personal evaluations of themselves and their success in school. Often, students' difficulties in basic academic skills are a direct result of their beliefs that they cannot think or perform accurately; students who have difficulty in school have often learned to perceive themselves as incapable of performing or thinking correctly.

Initially, the purpose for this paper evolved from a review of recent national studies including A Nation at Risk: The Imperative for Educational Reform (Commission Report 1983), Action for Excellence (Task Force Report 1983) and High School: A Report on American Secondary Education (Boyer 1983). Each of these suggests that schools are not doing an effective job of teaching students. Part of the solution given in these studies lies in improving teacher performance. Research suggests that teachers are often responsible for discouraging students by

behaving in ways that cause student failure and frustration, often as a result of inadequate or inappropriate teaching. The data overwhelmingly show that teachers' interpersonal skills do make a difference in students' learning:

> There is positive and significant correlation between interpersonal skills used by the teacher and student attendance, IQ gains, enhanced self-concept, increased self-confidence and cognitive growth.

Impetus for this study was therefore derived from our inquiry into the relationship between the affective domain (the study of self) and effective schooling. Primarily, we sought to find evidence which would support the following assumptions:

1) Healthy, productive students come from healthy, productive schools.

2) Productivity and satisfaction are interdependent factors in establishing a healthy school climate.

3) Learning gains occur when teachers provide high levels of interpersonal dimensions including sensitivity, agreeableness and positive regard for students.

In this paper, we look at the affective domain as it relates to achieving excellence in education. We present a history of "self" as a predictor of behavior and cite some commonly accepted definitions. Included is a synthesis of the literature looking at student self-esteem and self-concept and teacher attitudes and expectations as indicators of school success. Additionally, we parallel affective behavior with selected elements of effective schools to clearly establish this relationship. And finally, we offer some recommendations to move the synthesis findings toward implementation--presenting ways teachers can become productive and significant forces in building positive and realistic self-concepts in students.

Definitions

In reviewing the literature, we found the following definitions of terminology to be most widely accepted and are therefore employed for purposes of this paper:

1) Affective domain--behaviors which indicate feeling tone, emotions or a degree of acceptance or rejection, including interests, attitudes, appreciations, values and emotional sets or biases (Krathwohl et al. 1964).

2) Self--a complex and dynamic system of beliefs which an individual holds true about himself or herself, each belief with a corresponding value...two important characteristics of self: it is organized and it is dynamic (Purkey 1970).

3) Empathy--an individual's ability to perceive and understand another person's inner world of private and personal meaning (Aspy and Roebuck 1977).

4) Growth--in this paper, we look at two areas of student growth: the affective and cognitive domains. We present these domains as interdependent units--students grow emotionally as well as intellectually.

5) Congruence (used synonymously with genuineness)--the degree to which an individual's words and actions accurately reflect her or his real feelings and attitudes (Aspy and Roebuck 1977).

6) Positive regard--allied with warmth (Rogers 1957).

7) Self-concept--an individual's awareness of his or her own characteristics and attitudes, and the ways in which he or she is both like and unlike others (McCandless and Evans 1973).

8) Self-esteem--the value people place on themselves and on their own behavior (good or bad) (McCandless and Evans 1973).

9) Identity--an awareness of and willingness to accommodate group expectations and social responsibility (anticipated future development) (McCandless and Evans 1973).

10 Teachers' expectations of performance--inferences that teachers make about the present and future academic achievement and general classroom behavior of their students (Brophy and Good 1974).

11) Self-fulfilling prophecy--an expectation or prediction, initially false, which initiates a series of events that cause the original expectation or prediction to become true (Brophy and Good 1974).

12) School learning climate--the norms, beliefs and attitudes reflected in institutional patterns and behavior practices that enhance or impede student learning (Lezotte et al. 1980). An effective school learning climate is comprised of appropriate conditions for learning including the additudinal and behavioral patterns in a school which affect levels of achievement (Brookover 1982).

13) Self-report--that which can be inferred from a student's statements about himself or herself (Purkey 1970).

14) Observation--that which can be inferred from a student's behavior (Purkey 1970).

History of Self as a Predictor of Behavior and Success

Studies of the nonphysical, psychological self have been a part of man's thinking at least since the Middle Ages when the concept of soul was developed by theologians who stressed its immortality and superiority to the body in which it dwelled (Purkey 1970). In 1644, René Descartes wrote Principles of Philosophy which addressed doubt as a tool for inquiry. Freud, in 1900 and for many years thereafter, gave attention to self as a concept of ego development; his daughter, Anna, further studied and defined self-concept as a credible aspect of therapy.

In this country, around the turn of the century, self was given much attention--in 1890, William James wrote Principles of Psychology which included a chapter on "The Consciousness of Self" (Purkey 1970). During the first half of this century, the concept of self as a motivating factor in human behavior continued to receive some attention by Mead (1934), Levin (1935), Goldstein (1939), Maslow (1954, 1956), Lecky (1945), Bertocci (1945), and Murphy (1947). However, this work was largely ignored.

Controversy was rampant during that time; American psychology was on the verge of revolution. Differing positions regarding self as a viable concept for exploration were hotly argued: "Freudian psychologists emphasized unconscious motivation, introspectionists defended the process of introspection as a way of exploring consciousness, gestaltists believed in the value of insight and stressed the selective perceiver, and the behaviorists attempted, with surprising success to cancel out all other schools by claiming that all systems except their own studied consciousness while only a person's tangible, observable behavior was fit for scientific inquiry" (Purkey 1970). 7

There were resultant effects of the widespread dispute--psychology was redirected to observable stimuli and response; the concept of self was abandoned as a psychological construct. Through the 1940s, the self as a valid psychological measure received scant attention from the behavior-oriented psychologists who dominated American psychology at that time (Wylie 1961). As psychologists turned away from the concept of self, so did educators.

However, the work of Carl Rogers (1946, 1951, 1954, 1959, 1965, 1969) was significant in beginning the process of looking once again at the importance of self in human adjustment. Rogers viewed the self as the central aspect of personality. He described the self as "a social product, developing out of interpersonal relationships and striving for consistency...there is a need for positive regard both from others and from oneself, and that in every human being there is a tendency toward self-actualization and growth so long as this is permitted by the environment" (Rogers 1956). Rogers found that increased amounts of understanding and respect by a teacher for students results in increased learning. He delineated three factors he thought were related to all human learning situations: "Learning is enhanced when the teacher provides high levels of empathy (E), congruence (C) and positive regard (PR)" (1956).

Currently, the interest in self as an internal and intrinsic motivating force and its relationship to cognitive and symbolic processes has been enthusiastically reawakened. Many researchers have provided conclusive and empirical data on self as a dynamic factor in determining behavior,

including the work of Brookover (1959, 1962, 1964, 1965, 1967), Diggory (1966), Purkey (1970), Coopersmith (1967), Heider (1958) and Patterson (1959, 1960).

A number of researchers have developed tools for measuring key dimensions of teacher interpersonal functioning. Among the most widely accepted are 1) Flanders' Interaction Analysis which categorizes classroom interactions between teachers and students (Appendix A); 2) the Metfessel, Michael and Kirsner Instrumentation of Bloom's Taxonomy of Educational Objectives which classifies cognitive content (Appendix B); and 3) Carkhuff's Interpersonal Process Scales which evaluate individual levels of teacher interpersonal functioning in relation to students (Appendix C).

Aspy and Roebuck, National Consortium for Humanizing Education (1977), used the three preceding scales to conduct preliminary investigations to determine if certain interpersonal skills used by teachers would facilitate student growth. Aspy and Roebuck sought to test two hypotheses: 1) teachers and administrators could be trained in large numbers to increase levels of facilitative teaching skills and 2) increases in facilitative skills are accompanied by positive pupil changes on indices of both mental health and cognitive growth.

The Aspy, Roebuck study involved over 500 teachers and 10,000 students in both rural and urban school settings. Teachers and administrators were trained in specific verbal discrimination skills (Flanders and Bloom) and specific interpersonal communication skills (Carkhuff). Training effects

were monitored in a variety of ways including the use of audiotapes. The results of the study included:

- Educators can be trained in large numbers in discrimination and interpersonal communication skills.
- Interpersonal components of such training results in positive and statistically significant changes in student attendance, student achievement and student self-concept.

Aspy and Roebuck (1972, 1977) concluded that a substantial data base supports the contention that teacher behaviors affect student learning:

1. Teachers' levels of Empathy, Congruence and Positive Regard are positively and significantly related to:
   a. Students' cognitive growth
   b. Students' I.Q. gains
   c. Students' attendance
2. Teachers' present levels of interpersonal functioning (E, C and PR) are generally below those required for minimal facilitation of student growth.
3. Teachers' levels of interpersonal functioning (E, C and PR) can be enhanced and promoted by systematic skills training as developed by Carkhuff.
4. Teachers' gains in the interpersonal dimensions (E, C and PR) are translated into positive gains by their students.
5. Geographical setting is not a significant source of variance in the levels of interpersonal functioning evidenced by teachers. That is, the issue is a national rather than a local one.
6. Teachers demonstrate approximately the same levels of interpersonal functioning as the general population. That is, the problem is cultural-specific rather than career-specific.

II. LITERATURE SYNTHESIS AND CONCLUSIONS

Student Self-Concept and Self-Esteem

How well a student performs in school is strongly dependent on that student's self-concept and self-esteem: "Self-concept is a significant determinant of student achievement performance, regardless of the student's I.Q., race, family socio-economic position" (Felice 1975). Bloom suggests that "an individual develops a positive self-regard and a strong ego by continual evidence of his [or her] adequacy--especially in early childhood and in the periods of latency (ages 6-11) and adolescence....Since formal schooling occupies these latter two periods, we regard continual evidence of success or failure in the school as likely to have major effects on the individual's mental health" (1977).

How a student views himself or herself and his or her world are products of how others see that person and are primary forces in academic achievement (Purkey 1970).

The relationship between student self-concept and achievement has been demonstrated in a wide range of academic areas. Cambell and Martinez-Perez demonstrated significant, positive correlationships between self-concept and academic achievement as well as self-concept and Piagetian developmental tasks. Horak et al. suggest that "internal locus of control and high self-concept are positively associated with mathematics achievement" (1979). Additionally, the relative potential of self-concept and intelligence as predictors of achievement in language and mathematics was demonstrated by Gose, Wooden and Muller (1980).

Griffore and Parsons (1983) found a strong positive correlation between achievement and self-concept of students in desegregated schools. Larned and Muller (1979) suggest that only academic success, self-concept and self-esteem correlate positively with achievement, and this relationship is strengthened as students progress through the grades.

Young people learn about their values, interests and who they are through day-to-day contacts with others, including parents, siblings, peers, teachers and other adults. However, young people are not born with inadequate self-concepts: "Self-worth is learned in interaction with others....Personality characteristics such as sociability, initiation of activity, fear of competition, achievement motivation and locus of control are all learned in interactions with the environment" (Good and Brophy 1978).

Most developmental psychologists agree that self-concept affects both perception and action; individuals behave according to how they perceive the situation and themselves at the moment of action (La Benne and Greene 1969). For the most part, students have achieved their levels of self-concept at about age 10 ; after that point, they do not easily accept evidence that they are better or worse than they think they are (Aronson and Mills 1959). Therefore, once negative feelings are formed, "a person reacts to cues from the environment in terms of his or her self-views...students may learn from teachers whether or not to believe that there is a relationship between effort and progress...those students who conclude that there isn't are likely to get stuck in a circle of low expectations" (Good and Brophy 1978).

Good and Brophy suggest that a favorable self-concept is dependent on: 1) behavioral success (mastery of assigned school work) and 2) the student's perception of his or her progress. "Teachers must be positive but honest in their feedback with students; however, they must also attempt to alter destructive self-perceptions that students bring to learning situations....Low expectations are destructive because they reduce students' task motivation and the time and effort that they are willing to devote to activities" (1978).

Brookover et al. (1964) conducted a study to determine: 1) whether the student's concept of his or her ability in school is significantly and positively correlated with academic performance, 2) if self-concept corresponds to specific subject areas and 3) if self-concept is significantly and positively correlated with the student's perception of how others view his or her ability.

Brookover and colleagues studied the self reports of more than 1000 7th grade white students in an urban school district. The Self Concept of Ability scale was given to each student to determine each individual's concept of ability in both general and specific subject areas. IQ was factored out. The results indicated the students' reported concepts of ability and grade-point averages were positively and significantly correlated. Brookover and colleagues concluded: 1) the relationship

between self-concept and grades is substantial even when IQ is controlled, 2) specific self-concepts of ability are related to specific academic areas and differ from the self-concepts of general ability, 3) self-concept is significantly and positively correlated with the perceived evaluations of the student by others and 4) self-concept of academic ability is associated with academic achievement at each grade level.

Other studies which demonstrate the significant relationship between self-concept and academic achievement include Campbell (1967), Bledsoe (1967), Irwin (1967), Caplin (1966) and Gill (1969).

In reviewing numerous studies on self-concept as an indicator of school success, Purkey concludes: "A composite portrait of the successful student would seem to show that he [or she] has a relatively high opinion of himself [or herself] and is optimistic about his [or her] future performance. He [or she] has confidence in his [or her] ability as a student. He [or she] needs fewer favorable evaluations from others and feels that he [or she] works hard, is liked by other students and is generally polite and honest" (1970).

Though there is no question that a clear relationship exists between self-concept and achievement, it has not yet been established whether self-concept determines academic performance or if academic performance controls self-concept. What is known is that one influences the other; there is complete and continuous interaction between self-concept and school success and achievement.

Teacher Expectations and Attitudes

"Teacher expectations" are inferences that teachers make about the present and future academic achievement and general classroom behavior of their students (Brophy and Good 1974). Teacher expectations are based on numerous factors including such student data and characteristics as past grades, IQ, home and family background, opinions of other teachers and so on. These sources of information help form teacher expectations. However, daily contact with students in the classroom further shapes and refines teachers' opinions and expectations--for example, students' work habits, motivation, behavior, and compliance with school rules.

Teachers' expectations for individual students as well as for the class as a whole greatly influence the teachers' classroom behaviors and how they treat individual students. All teachers hold opinions regarding the abilities and personalities of their students--some of these opinions are accurate; many are distorted. Some teachers make quick judgements regarding individual students. The result of inaccurate or inflexible perceptions of students is inappropriate teacher behavior.

Within any classroom, there is a wide range of individual differences in students' abilities, personalities and other personal attributes including behavior. Teachers observe individual differences in students which results in personal judgements as to what the student is like, how the student should be taught and how well the student is likely to perform or behave in the future.

On the basis of those judgements, teachers then form attitudes or expectations toward individual students and their performance in school. Accordingly, teachers' behavior changes with individual students. High expectations are often held by teachers for students who are physically attractive, sit at the front and down the center aisles of the classroom, write neatly, speak standard English and are high achieving. Low expectations are often held by teachers for students who are lower SES, nonstandard English speaking, poorly groomed, sit in the back or on the sides of the classroom, have poor performance records and are low achievers. (Brookover, 1982; Brophy and Good 1974; Finn 1972; Persell 1977).

Teacher expectations do not have to be inaccurate to affect students--more crucial than initial accuracy is the degree of flexibility or openness teachers have in changing expectations in response to new data.

Low and inflexible expectations can be self-defeating--if a teacher perceives a student to be a low achiever for whatever reason, and if a teacher sees this as a permanent condition, then that teacher will most likely be unsuccessful in teaching that student. This results in the self-fulfilling prophecy effect (Merton 1948). A self-fulfilling prophecy is an "expectation or prediction, initially false, which initiates a series of events that cause the original expectation or prediction to become true" (Brophy and Good 1974). Therefore, "if a teacher harbors an inappropriate but rigid expectation that a particular student is not capable of doing the work assigned to his or her class or

group, the teacher is likely to 'give up' psychologically on this student, perhaps even going through the motion of teaching him or her but not doing so with serious determination and with the expectation that the student will learn" (Brophy and Good 1974).

The self-fulfilling prophecy sets off a series of events. The teacher is likely to treat this student differently from others. The teacher may call on the student infrequently, make fewer responses to the student, make fewer attempts to teach the student and be relatively unconcerned with the student's progress. Additionally, the teacher will be more inclined to notice failures on the part of this student and will be less inclined to notice successes.

The defeating and frustrating circle is reinforced by the student's behavior in response to the teacher's low expectations. Since the student is taught less, both in terms of quality and quantity, he or she will more than likely learn less. The student's inability to learn as much as other members of the class or group serves to confirm the teacher's low expectations of him or her. The student's motivation will be diminished as a result of falling further behind in the school work and a feeling that the teacher may be correct in thinking he or she is not bright or capable of performing successfully. The cycle is further reinforced by the student feeling frustrated, defeated and apathetic toward school. He or she may give up or withdraw from the class, again reinforcing the teacher's low expectations.

It should be noted that the self-fulfilling prophecy effect does not

occur in all situations where low expectations are held. For example, in some instances teachers accurately assess a student's ability to handle the curriculum as low, but they make every effort to effectively teach that student. In fact, in such cases, they may work just as hard or harder with that student to help move him or her along at a comfortable pace. Therefore, effective teachers who hold low expectations for some students will use appropriate instructional skills, patience, encouragement and persistence to diagnose and remediate the student's weaknesses.

Additionally, the self-fulfilling prophecy does not occur in cases where teachers have low expectations for students who continue to make little or no gains in learning. It is incorrect to conclude that it is the result of the self-fulfilling prophecy effect when there is no evidence of inappropriate behavior on the part of the teacher holding the low expectations: "Thus, the mere fact than an expectation has been confirmed is not sufficient evidence of a self-fulfilling prophecy effect; there must also be evidence that the original expectation was inappropriate to some degree and that the person holding the expectation engaged in some kind of behavior which caused the other person to respond in a way that made the originally inappropriate expectation come true" (Brophy and Good 1974).

In his most recent examination of studies addressing self-fulfilling prophecy effects, Brophy concluded: "In general, various scholarly reviewers agree on the following points, at least implicitly. First, a great deal of evidence supports the notion that expectations can function

as self-fulfilling prophecies...Secondly, however, the evidence for self-fulfilling prophecy effects of teacher expectations on student achievement in ordinary classrooms is much weaker and more equivocal..Thus, thirdly, although the potential for teachers' expectations to function as self-fulfilling prophecies always exists, the extent to which they actually do so in typical classrooms is probably limited, averaging perhaps a 5-10 percent effect...However, even a 5 percent difference in educational outcomes is an important difference, the more so as it is compounded across school years" (Brophy 1982).

Subsequent to the publication, Pygmalion in the Classroom (Rosenthal and Jacobsen 1968) there has been continuing debate over the notion that teacher expectations for student achievement can function as self-fulfilling prophecies. Research now clearly establishes the validity of this hypothesis for certain teachers in certain situations. Teacher expectations cause a teacher to perceive those student characteristics that confirm expectations and fail to perceive those student characteristics that do not confirm expectations. Teacher expectations also cause a teacher to treat students in inappropriate ways.

Teacher attitudes are closely interrelated with teacher expectations (Brophy and Good 1974). Attitudes, like expectations, have strong potential for affecting students and for functioning as self-fulfilling prophecies. Once teacher attitudes are formed, students may begin to respond differentially and in ways that tend to complement and reinforce teacher attitudes, resulting in an increase in achievement and school satisfaction for some and a decrease in achievement and school satisfaction for others.

Brophy and Good (1974) extensively studied: 1) how individual differences in students make differential impressions upon teachers, 2) the ways such differential impressions lead teachers to form differential attitudes and expectations regarding different students, and 3) the ways differential teacher attitudes and expectations affect teacher-student interaction patterns. They reviewed a number of studies analyzing four basic differential teacher attitudes that have been shown to affect patterns of teacher-student interaction: 1) attachment, 2) indifference, 3) concern and 4) rejection. Data were collected using teacher responses to the following interview items (Brophy and Good 1974):

> Attachment: If you could keep one student another year for the sheer joy of it, whom would you pick?
>
> Indifference: If a parent were to drop in unannounced for a conference, whose child would you be least prepared to talk about?
>
> Concern: If you could devote all your attention to a child who concerned you a great deal, whom would you pick?
>
> Rejection: If your class was to be reduced by one child, whom would you be relieved to have removed?

The studies reviewed by Brophy and Good showed that contact with students causes teachers to form affective attitudinal responses toward them. Once formed, teacher attitudes can act as self-fulfilling prophecies. Brophy and Good summarized the results from studies of teacher attitudes (1974):

> In general, attachment students are high achieving, conforming students who reward teachers by showing desirable classroom behavior...(however) five different studies agree in finding little evidence of overt teacher favoritism toward these students.... Indifference students are characterized largely by

> their passivity and low salience in the classroom...teachers appear to be truly indifferent toward such students even when they perceive that the students are unhappy or in need of help....Studies agree in seeing concern students as low achievers who require considerable teacher help and make legitimate demands upon the teachers, with the result that teachers have high rates of interaction with concern students...all studies agree in showing the teachers to be concerned about the academic achievement of these students and to spend much time and effort with them in attempting to improve it....Although the rejection students appear to be similar to the concern students in many ways, the teachers respond to them with rejection rather than concern...the studies agree that teachers tend to develop strong affective responses toward rejection students and to be primarily concerned with controlling their classroom behavior, whereas they are more concerned with the academic achievement of students in the concern group.

From their studies, Brophy and Good concluded: 1) teachers behave quite differently toward different students in their classrooms, 2) the treatment of some students is so consistently inappropriate that it erodes the general confidence and aspirations of these students and 3) teachers hold different expectations for their students and these expectations influence the ways teachers and students interact (1974).

However, Brophy's most recent investigation (1982) into self-fulfilling prophecy effects shows that absolute effects of teacher expectations cannot be predicted with total accuracy; also involved are teachers' beliefs about learning and instruction and students' interpretations of and responses to teachers' behaviors.

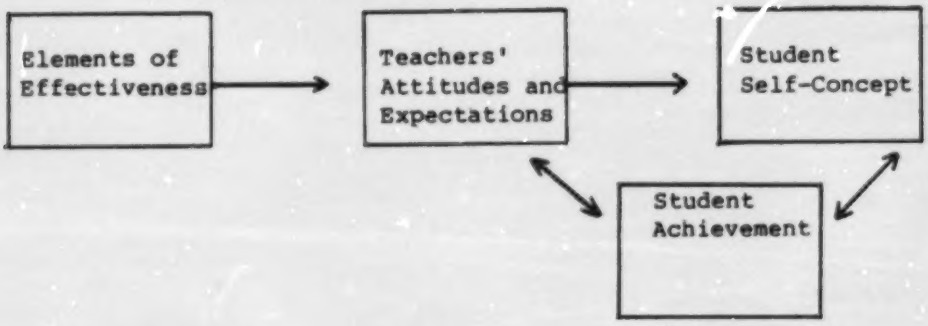
In summarizing what we learned about self-fulfilling prophecy effects, we feel that teachers need to remain aware of their existence; teachers need to be cautious about not allowing major expectations to affect student achievement, and in cases where expectations are held, keep such expectations open to corrective feedback.

Relating Affective Behavior to Selected Elements of Effective Schools

The literature clearly establishes direct relationships among student self-concept and self-esteem, teacher attitudes and expectations, and student growth and achievement. The following diagram displays this interrelationship.

DIAGRAM I

Interrelationships Among Elements of Effective Schools and The Affective Domain



In this section, we parallel our research findings in the affective domain with selected elements of effective schools. A wide range of effective schooling practices which have potential for increasing performance in young people has been demonstrated. We chose the following elements because they have potential for showing linkages with affective aspects of education: teacher expectations, motivation, student team learning and school learning climate.

Teacher Expectations

Researchers have long noted the connection between teachers' expectations and student achievement. What teachers expect students to learn is likely to result in what students will learn. General findings of expectations of performance as they relate to the affective domain include:

- Teacher expectations are a strong influence in setting learning climate; the processes by which expectations are formed and transmitted to pupils are largely unconscious, becoming a part of the school learning climate (Brookover 1982).
- School learning climate reflects the influence of teachers' evaluations and expectations; it also reflects student perceptions of those evaluations and expectations (Brookover 1982).
- Elements of effective schools include: 1) administrators and teachers have high expectations for student achievement, 2) expectations are clearly defined, 3) general expectations are not reduced for any student, 4) students are expected to work toward priority goals, and 5) everyone accepts the notion that school is a place for learning (GBE Program document 1983).
- When students are not successful in academic areas or when academic work is unrelated to current and future goals, they look for recognition outside the school setting; peer social judgement becomes more important as academic success declines (Faunce 1979).
- High expectations result in increased and more effective instruction; low expectations result in decreased and less effective instruction (Brophy and Good 1974, Finn 1972, Persell 1977).
- Teachers' expectations have greater influence on low income and/or minority students than on middle class students (Brookover et al. 1979).
- Parents' expectations and evaluations influence their children (Brookover 1982).
- Almost all students are capable of reaching competence on age/grade level objectives (Bloom 1976).
- Students conform to the level of expectations teachers set (Crano and Mellon 1978, Rist 1970).
- Student expectations are affected by teachers' predispositions in four major areas: 1) teachers' personality traits, 2) teachers' social experiences and prejudices within the school as

well as within the community, 3) teachers' concepts and beliefs regarding IQ or cultural patterns, and 4) teachers' knowledge and use of such educational structures as grouping arrangements or testing patterns (Persell 1977).

- Teachers' affective responses to pupils account for much of their expectations; teachers have higher expectations for students who are achievement oriented, dependent and compliant. A major source of academic expectations is the social characteristics of students (Crano and Mellon 1978).

- Besides reacting to students on the basis of group variables such as social class, race and sex, teachers respond to individual differences in students' personal attributes and behavior, especially student achievement level (Brophy and Good 1974).

- High achieving students enjoy more positive and supportive contacts from their teachers while low achievers have a greater proportion of teacher contacts involving conflict (Hoehn 1954).

- High achievers receive more teacher praise; low achievers receive disproportionately more disapproval (DeGroat and Thompson 1949).

- Lowered academic expectations of performance can result from the following. Therefore, teachers should be careful to guard against lowered expectations because of (Brookover 1982):

  1) Sex--lower expectations are often held for older girls due to sex role discrimination.

  2) SES--lower expectations are often held for lower SES (including level of parental education, types of jobs held, place of residence).

  3) Race--lower expectations are often held for minority status students.

  4) Test scores, permanent records--a belief in the "fixed ability" of students often precludes the possibility of improvement and higher expectations.

  5) Negative comments about students--lounge talk, other teachers' or principal's negative evaluations can result in lower expectations.

  6) Type of school--rural and inner city schools are often associated with lower expectations.

  7) Appearance--lower expectations are often associated with type, style and expense of clothes and grooming habits.

  8) Oral language patterns--negative cues from any nonstandard English speaking student often result in lower expectations.

9) Neatness--lower expectations are often associated with general disorganization.

10) Halo effect--often teachers have a tendency to label a student's overall ability based on one characteristic, such as poor behavior.

11) Readiness--teachers often assume that maturation rates or prior lack of knowledge or experience are unchanging phenomena, thus precluding improvement.

12) Seating position--lower expectations are often held for students sitting on the sides or in the back of the classroom.

13) Socialization by experienced teachers--often teachers have a tendency to stress limitations of students to new teachers.

14) Teacher training institutions--perpetuation of myths and idealogies of individual limitations of students often results in lower expectations.

15) Tracking or grouping--labeling effects and a tendency to accentuate differences between students often results in lower expectations.

In addition, Brookover (1982) has found the following teacher behaviors can result in lowered expectations of performance:

- Negative comments or negative expressions about the student
- Harshness and punitiveness of discipline techniques
- Rewarding or praising incorrect responses
- Rewarding inappropriate behavior

Motivation

An effective school learning climate includes high expectations for all students to succeed. Researchers have found various reinforcement techniques will help motivate and sustain appropriate student behaviors. General findings of student motivation clearly show the relationship to affective behaviors:

- Six teacher behaviors have a powerful effect on student motivation (Hunter 1979):

1) Student concern--students have optimal levels of concern that motivates them to greater effort and higher performance; teachers must sometimes raise, sometimes lower students' levels of concern.

2) Teachers' feeling tone--whether pleasant, unpleasant or neutral; use of tone depends on the situation, but teachers must return to pleasant tone as soon as the student has performed.

3) Student interest--students' interest can be developed by a) making the learning more meaningful, and b) making the learning vivid or different from what the student usually experiences or is expecting.

4) Student success--motivation increases as success increases; however, some effort is required on the part of the student to feel successful.

5) Student knowledge of results--students are highly motivated if they know how they're doing while they're learning.

6) Intrinsic vs. extrinsic student motivation--intrinsic motivation is developed when an activity or the learning itself is the reward for effort; extrinsic motivation is developed when the student learns to gain status, approval, grades or other rewards.

- Positive reinforcement or rewards, by definition, are linked to motivation; when the behavior (whether right or wrong) is positively reinforced, the probability of that behavior being repeated is high (Brookover et al. 1982).

- Negative reinforcement can be as effective as positive reinforcement; student behavior can be motivated by withdrawing something the student values, for example, withholding praise (Brookover et al. 1982).

- Any reinforcement used in a nondiscriminating manner is likely to impede student learning (Brookover et al. 1982).

- Praise is relatively easy to apply and is a direct statement of the contingency between the behavior and the reinforcer (Brophy 1981).

- When intrinsic motivation is absent, extrinsic rewards are necessary (Brophy 1981), but intrinsic motivation is a more powerful motivator and more enduring (Crandall 1963).

- Teacher praise is not a useful reinforcer in the classroom because it's often misused (Brophy 1981). Most praise is noncontingent on students' behavior (Harris and Kapche 1978). Inappropriate praise is found among teachers who have low expectations for student learning (Weinstein 1976, Brookover et al. 1978).

- Praise must have the following characteristics to motivate behavior effectively: 1) is contingent on performance, 2) is specific to the behavior being reinforced, and 3) is sincere and convincing (O'Leary and O'Leary 1977).

Additionally, in effective schools teachers demonstrate the following behaviors (Brookover et al. 1982):

- Teachers use praise only when it is earned by students.
- Teachers know why, when and how to use praise effectively.
- Teachers understand that motivation is increased through positive reinforcement of correct student responses and results in: a) mastery of behavior, b) feeling that learning is possible and valuable and c) positive self-concepts.
- Teachers understand that positive reinforcement of incorrect response without reinstruction, results in: a) incorrect knowledge, skills and behavior, b) difficulty in correctly applying basic skills and c) feeling that learning is futile.
- Teachers understand that negative reinforcement of incorrect response with reinstruction results in: a) feeling that learning is possible and valuable, b) learning of correct behaviors, skills and attitudes, c) positive self-concepts, and d) ability to understand perceptions of others and demonstrate appropriate responses.

Student Team Learning

In addition to general findings on student motivation, there has been extensive research on student cooperative (team) learning. General findings regarding cooperative learning as they relate to affective behavior include:

- Groups have powerful effects on student behavior and motivation; groups reinforce attitudes, actions and behaviors of the members (Slavin and DeVries 1979).
- Peer relationships strongly influence student feelings about the importance of behaviors, skills and attitudes (McDill and Rigsby 1973).
- Student norms can oppose academic achievement and penalize successful students (Coleman 1961).
- Research on cooperative learning techniques prove them to be effective in increasing student performance and positive self-concepts (Slavin and DeVries 1979, 1980; Aronson et al. 1975).

- For group and team competition to work, teachers must effectively use tangible and symbolic rewards that are attractive to the student peer culture (Brookover et al. 1982).

- Team learning research suggests that students prefer to and learn better when they teach and learn from each other (Devin, Sheehan et al. 1976).

- The addition of an effective team incentive system to mastery learning techniques results in greater achievement than either component by itself (Slavin 1983).

- Cooperative learning methods result in positive: a) race relations, b) attitudes toward academically handicapped students, c) self-esteem, and d) ability to cooperate in other settings (Slavin 1983).

- Among cooperative learning methods where students study the same material together, only those that provide group rewards based on individual learning consistently increase student achievement; group rewards and individual accountability are held to be essential to the instructional effectiveness of cooperative learning methods (Slavin 1983).

- Cooperative learning methods include cooperative incentive structure and cooperative task structure; the critical feature is that two or more students are interdependent for a reward they will share if they are successful as a group. Cooperative task structure involves two or more students allowed, encouraged or required to work together on a task, coordinating their efforts. Cooperative incentive structure involves: a) group rewards for individual learning, b) group rewards for group products and c) individual rewards (Slavin 1983).

School Learning Climate

Researchers have found differences in learning climate between those schools which produce high levels of student achievement and schools which produce low levels of student achievement. General findings of effective learning climate as it relates to affective behavior include:

- Effective school learning climate is comprised of "appropriate conditions for learning." It refers to attitudinal and behavioral patterns in a school which affect levels of achievement (Brookover 1982).

- School learning climate is also defined as "the norms, beliefs and attitudes reflected in institutional patterns and behavior practices that enhance or impede student learning (Lezotte et al. 1980).

- Three clusters of school characteristics make a difference in the level of achievement and have an interactive relationship: ideology, organizational structure and instructional practices. There is a basic and important distinction between school climate and school learning climate (Brookover 1982):

  1) School learning climate relates to student achievement and those factors within a school that affect achievement.

  2) A school's learning climate is the collective set of attitudes, beliefs, and behaviors within a building. It goes beyond the individual to the group norms of a school. These norms tend to be maintained over time with new members being socialized into the prevailing set of behaviors.

  3) The school learning climate describes the school as a social system. Since schools share a common function in society, there is some similarity in learning climates. On the other hand, different schools stress different "philosophies," instructional practices and methodologies, beliefs and expectations of students' abilities to learn. Consequently, school learning climate varies sufficiently to produce different levels of student achievement.

  4) The school learning climate can be changed. Local and building norms do change and the people who are members of the school social group are the change agents. Outsiders are unlikely to have much impact on the social group unless the group desires or is willing to change.

- School learning climate can explain as much of the achievement differences among schools as SES and race (Lezotte et al. 1980).

- School learning climate as it affects student achievement and behavior is documented in other countries: Israeli junior high schools (Chen and Fresko 1978); high schools in Ireland (Madaus et al. 1979); London, England high schools (Rutter et al. 1979). The results of the foreign studies support the work done in high schools in this country (Brookover et al. 1979; McDill, Meyers and Rigsby 1967; Glasheen, Hadley and Schneider 1977).

III. RECOMMENDATIONS--MOVING THE SYNTHESIS FINDINGS TOWARD IMPLEMENTATION

The following recommendations are divided into two major areas: 1) Improving Teacher Expectations and 2) The Teachers' Role in Building Positive and Realistic Self-Concepts in Students. Within each section we suggest ways teachers can use the research findings in the affective domain to increase student learning.

Improving Teacher Expectations

Teacher expectations must be appropriate to each student; they need not be necessarily high or low. Teacher expectations should serve to move the student from where he or she is now to a point that can be comfortably reached; the instructional pace must allow for continued success and improvement and will vary from student to student. Though the pace must be made slower for some students, teachers should not feel as though they are handicapping those students as long as each student is working to his or her fullest potential and making steady progress. However, teachers must guard against moving young people at a slower pace than they can handle because expectations are too low, and/or never tested or re-evaluated, resulting in self-fulfilling prophecy effects. To avoid such occurrences, teachers must be aware of their expectations for students and how they're formed or changed. Teachers must monitor their own behavior from time to time, reassuring themselves that negative expectations are not being transmitted. In instances where abilities <u>are</u> low, teachers must work toward combining the help and concern necessary

to remediate the problem. When skills or abilities are low, teachers need to provide help in positive, supportive ways.

Following are basic attitudes and expectations demonstrated by effective teachers (Good and Brophy 1977):

Effective teachers enjoy teaching.

> Effective teachers enjoy their work and it shows in their classroom behavior. They are prepared, professional and eager for contact with students. If inappropriate teacher attitudes or behaviors exist, effective teachers take serious steps to remediate those faults, reorienting their approach to the teaching role and sharpening specific teaching skills.

Effective teachers know their main responsibility is to teach.

> Though there are other necessary aspects to the teacher's role such as parent surrogate, entertainer, psychotherapist, record keeper and others, they are subordinate to the role of teaching. They must not take precedence over the teacher's basic instructional role.

Effective teachers understand that the crucial aspects of teaching are task presentation, diagnosis, remediation and enrichment.

> Teachers who fail to understand such crucial elements tend to favor high achievers over low achievers and pay more attention to answers than to thinking processes. Effective instruction means more than giving demonstrations or presenting learning experiences. It includes giving additional help to those who need it, diagnosing problems, providing remedial assistance, conducting evaluations, keeping track of student progress and finding satisfactions in the progress of slower students as well as in faster ones.

Effective teachers expect students to enjoy learning.

> Though all students will not perform equally, reasonable minimal objectives are established for each class. Effective teachers with appropriate attitudes spend extra time working with students who are having difficulty, using supportiveness, patience and confidence.

Effective teachers expect students to enjoy learning.

> Effective teachers expect students to enjoy learning activities including practice exercises; they model appropriate behavior. Effective teachers present school work as enjoyable and

interesting. Tasks and assignments are presented without apology. The teacher expects consistent satisfactions and feelings of mastery that come with the accumulation of knowledge and skills.

Effective teachers expect to relate to individuals, not groups or stereotypes.

Effective teachers keep a proper perspective regarding priorities--grouping is practiced as a means toward the goal of meeting the individual needs of each student. Effective teachers avoid the use of oversimplified labels in describing certain students.

It has been empirically shown that appropriately positive attitudes and expectations for students are important teacher qualities and certainly demonstrated by the majority of teachers who are dedicated and hard working. However, though teachers do not consciously neglect or ignore low achieving students, such behaviors often exist in many classrooms. Research indicates that teacher interaction with low achievers is identifiable and understandable. It is also changeable. Teachers generally enjoy high achievers because such students reinforce the teacher's behavior and are likable people. Teachers often give up on low achieving students because low performance is expected or anticipated. Additionally, many teachers feel uncomfortable in handling cases of failure.

Most inappropriate teacher behavior occurs because teachers are honestly not aware of such behavior or of alternatives to correct the behavior. Following are suggestions for changing inappropriate teacher behavior and expectations toward low achieving students (Brophy and Good 1974):

- Teachers need to be made aware of improper behavior and interaction with students through the use of audiotapes, observations by fellow teachers, informal discussions with students to solicit feedback, inservice activities or other means to help teachers expand their repertoire of classroom skills.

- Teachers need to learn to identify students who achieve at low levels and behave similarly but for dissimilar reasons--some low achieving students are passive; others are aggressive and hostile. Though low achieving students may behave differently, the source of their problems may be the same. Such diagnosis is complex, yet to effectively teach low achieving students, teachers must know them as individuals.

- It is most important that teachers learn the unique needs and interests of students who have been turned off to school and who see school as a threatening or punishing place. Teachers need to seek out low achieving students and engage them in frequent informal discussions to determine causes of such feelings while concurrently showing genuine interest in them.

- Teachers need to help low achievers set realistic goals. Often, low achieving students believe they cannot achieve and therefore, set goals which are either too high or too low, thus avoiding evaluations of ability. Simple goal setting conferences may help such students set realistic goals that have potential for positively affecting their achievement.

- Teachers need to help low achieving students eliminate feelings that the school and teachers are disinterested in them. One study found that over 73 percent of low achievers felt that teachers thought poorly of them, while only 10 percent of high achieving students felt that way (Morrison and McIntyre 1969). Teachers need to involve low achieving students in classroom decisions and help them become more accurate judges of their own work.

- Teachers need to keep expectations relevant to student needs and interests. In cases of skill deficiencies, teachers need to take remedial steps to help low achieving students learn the necessary skills. However, in cases where basic skills are not involved, teachers should reconsider instructional goals. Usually there is no single approach to learning most material. Therefore, if teachers know what low achieving students like or dislike, they can help them become more involved in school work by capitalizing on those interests.

- Teachers need to break down tasks into small, specific steps. Many low achievers are overwhelmed academically and therefore, have well-developed failure expectations. Low achievers may not respond even when the teacher spends much time with them and allows the low achievers to pursue their own interests. Teachers need to help low achievers structure their work, show them where and how to begin and help them set realistic and reachable short-range goals.

- Teachers need to spend more time with low achievers; most specifically, teachers need to spend more <u>classroom</u> time with them. Though high achieving students are usually able to work

and learn independently, research shows that most low achieving students need more direct instructional time; teachers need to develop strategies for individualizing instruction that meets the needs of both high and low achievers.

- Teachers need to set classroom goals for optimal teaching of both high and low achieving students. It has been shown that teachers are more likely to interact with students in desirable ways if they work with individuals or small groups of students while the remainder of the class works independently, in small groups or engages in peer tutoring activities. Student achievement is positively affected in direct proportion to time spent on relevant tasks and activities.

- Teachers need to emphasize instructional help, not sympathy in working with low achieving students. It is not effective to give easier tests to low achieving students, ask easier questions or help them out in question and answer situations. Low achieving students need to become more academically self-sufficient and held accountable for their learning.

- Teachers need to create the right classroom climates. Too often, increased teacher attention and help provided to low achieving students is interpreted as a sign that low achievers are hopelessly lost. In such cases, other students may become openly hostile to low achievers. To avoid such student hostility and comparisons, teachers need to focus on individual progress, not group progress. To build positive, credible classroom environments, teachers need to communicate respect for individual learning speeds and interests.

- Teachers need to help low achievers experience public success and recognition. In the early grades, teachers can usually influence a low achieving student's self-concept by working with the student on an individual basis. However, the problem becomes more complex as the student grows older; peer expectations greatly influence the behavior of low achievers. Students who expect a low achieving individual to perform poorly will make it more likely for the low achiever to do so. To remediate the dilemma, teachers need to help low achievers experience success with classmates from time to time. One way is to allow low achievers to demonstrate some skill or ability. Another way is to capitalize on the lifestyle of the individual. In some cases, teachers may have to work with low achieving students to help them learn specific skills and then find ways for the low achiever to demonstrate the skill to other class members.

Building Positive and Realistic Self-Concepts in Students

Preventing Negative Self-Concepts

As has been noted, once a student has formed a negative image of himself or herself, it is extremely difficult to reverse those feelings and build toward a positive self-concept. Therefore, the first step in building positive and realistic self-concepts in students is to prevent negative self-concepts in the first place. Soar (1968) found that student growth is optimized in a supportive environment that contains little or no dissonance. The need to avoid instilling negative images is vital--schools must be sensitive about unfavorable features in their instructional programs and approaches that may result in negative self-concepts in students. If found, schools need to take the steps necessary to make changes.

Several studies have shown that it is feasible to develop a curriculum in which the expected academic learning takes place while positive self-concepts are being built (Purkey 1970). The results of these studies demonstrate that it is possible to teach toward specific learning outcomes while at the same time making specific changes in students' self images; teaching methods can be employed which result in student academic growth as well as enhanced self-image.

Teachers' Beliefs of Themselves and Their Students

The second critical factor in building positive and realistic

self-concepts in students is the teacher's beliefs about himself or herself in addition to beliefs regarding his or her students. These feelings are paramount to achieving excellence in the classroom.

What a teacher believes about himself or herself and others has been shown to be as important if not more important than that teacher's teaching methods, practices, materials or resources (Combs 1969). Indeed, Rogers (1965) suggests that there are no teaching techniques which are consistently associated with effective teachers. Rogers believes that attitudes are the primary factors in determining success in the teacher/student relationship.

Teacher attitudes about himself or herself need to be positive and realistic before that teacher can like or respect others (Purkey 1970). A number of studies support this conclusion including the work of Luft (1966), Jersild (1965), Combs (1969) and others. Each of these researchers has demonstrated the importance of teacher self-understanding as a necessary factor in coping with their own personal feelings and becoming more effective in the classroom. Teachers' personal problems can be a major detractor of teacher effectiveness; an understanding of personal attitudes and emotions is crucial before one can successfully teach young people: "The way the evidence points is that each teacher needs to view himself [or herself] with respect, liking and acceptance. When teachers have essentially favorable attitudes toward themselves they are in a much better position to build positive and realistic self-concepts in their students" (Purkey 1970).

Teacher attitudes about students are as important as teacher attitudes about himself or herself: "The way significant others evaluate the student directly affects the student's conception of his [or her] academic ability. This in turn establishes limits on his [or her] success in school" (Purkey 1970).

That a student's perception of the feelings a teacher has toward him or her positively correlates with that student's self-perception has been successfully demonstrated by a number of researchers including Lang (1960), Clarke (1960), and Brookover and associates (1965, 1967). In fact, Brookover, Erickson and Joiner concluded from their six-year study of the relationship between self-concept, academic ability and school achievement among students in the 7th through 12th grades: "The hypothesis that students' perceptions of the evaluations of their academic ability by others (teachers, parents and friends) are associated with self-concepts of academic ability was confirmed" (1967).

Regarding teacher attitudes towards students as a gauge of student performance, we can conclude that teacher attitudes and opinions do have a measureable and significant influence on student success in school (Purkey 1970):

- When teachers believe that students can achieve, the students appear more successful.
- When teachers believe that students cannot achieve, student performance is negatively influenced.

Teachers need to be sensitive about the attitudes expressed toward students:

- There is a significant relationship between teachers who are calm, accepting, supportive and facilitative and positive self-concepts in students (Spaulding 1963).

- Teachers build environmental climates that facilitate student growth when they hold students in high esteem and treat each student as a unique person (Moustakas 1966).

- Environments which are well-structured and reasonably demanding (rather than unlimitedly permissive) foster self-reliance in students (Coopersmith 1967).

- Teachers that enhance the academic expectations and evaluations parents hold toward their young people also enhance student self-concept and student achievement (Brookover et al. 1965).

- Teachers that model authentic behavior and genuineness produce higher achievement in students (Jourard 1964, Rogers 1965).

- There is a significant and positive correlation between a student's self-concept and the teacher's behavior when it includes personal and private communication (Spaulding 1963).

Creating Favorable Classroom Climates

The third critical factor in building positive and realistic self-concepts in students is a favorable classroom climate or environment. Six factors have been found to be important in creating a classroom atmosphere conducive to developing favorable self-images in students (Purkey 1970):

1) Challenge--high expectations for students and a high degree of challenge on the part of the teacher have a positive and beneficial effect on students. Relevance is important to the aspect of challenge--when the learning is relevant to the student's experiences and has personal meaning for the student, the student is likely to work harder to achieve those objectives.

2) Freedom--to grow and develop, a student must have the opportunities to make meaningful decisions and the freedom to make mistakes.

3) Respect--students who are treated with respect have higher levels of self-respect. A basic feeling by the teacher for the worth and dignity of students is vital in building positive self-concepts in students.

4) Warmth--a psychologically safe and supportive learning environment encourages students to grow academically as well as in feelings of personal worth.

5) Control--clearly established and relatively firm guidance produces higher levels of self-esteem in students; additionally, classroom control has a considerable effect on student self-image. Teacher behaviors which lead to classroom control include being prepared for class, avoiding confusion, making clear and pertinent explanations, being consistent, polite and firm.

6) Success--overall, regardless of students' abilities or tasks, praise, when used effectively and at the right times, produces more learning gains than blame; effective educational environments stress success rather than failure.

We have looked at three factors teachers need to consider if they are to build and foster positive self-concepts in students: 1) avoiding negative self-concepts in the first place, 2) assessing beliefs about themselves and their students and 3) creating favorable classroom climates. Next, we review the processes of observation and self-reports as techniques for understanding student behavior. Used sensitively in conjunction with other student data, these two techniques provide rich insights into how students see themselves and their environments. With this information, teachers can analyze and improve students' self-concepts.

Evaluating the Self Through Student Observations

To assist teachers in becoming more competent in assessing the self-concepts of their students, teachers need to understand the process of observation. Observations are those judgements and opinions derived from studying a student's behavior. However, a word of caution is in order regarding the use of observation techniques. To understand the complex nature of self requires specialized training and supervised experience. School counselors, psychologists and other professionals should be employed to assist teachers in their observations and

assessments of students. Teachers must understand that personal biases and limitations in training can result in error of judgement; however, when used correctly, techniques of observation are effective means for understanding student behavior.

Recent research regarding teacher observation of student behavior combines an objective, detached approach with the teacher's exploration, involvement and sensitivity to the individual. In other words, teachers are encouraged to be as objective as possible in making the observations and then freeing themselves to form subjective inferences (Purkey 1970).

In observing students, teachers generally begin with appearance--clothing, height, weight, posture, grooming and so on. Behavior is usually assessed next--speech patterns, facial expressions, habits, mannerisms and so on. At this point, clues regarding the student's behavior in relation to peers and adults are noted--for example, who the student seeks out for attention and approval, how and with whom the student spends time and those things the student seems to like or dislike.

The combination of these observations serves to help teachers draw inferences about that student's self-concept. It should be noted here that more important than how the student looks or behaves is how the student perceives himself or herself. Some students who appear well-groomed and well-behaved may have seriously low or negative self-concepts.

Sometimes observations regarding student self-concept are derived from

structured interviews. In this case, carefully phrased questions are used to elicit information about the student's hopes, aspirations, fears, likes, dislikes and so on. Other techniques to gain this information may come in the form of written autobiographies, completed interest inventories, creating stories, or participating in role play situations.

Based upon the observations made as to appearance and behavior, teachers can draw inferences about the student's self-concept. Questions teachers might ask themselves of the student include (Purkey 1970):

- What are some of the beliefs he or she holds about himself or herself?
- Does he or she see himself or herself as a leader, an athlete, a popular person or other type of person and in what order?
- Are those beliefs more generally positive or negative?
- What beliefs are more central? Which are more value laden?
- Which beliefs are most likely to resist change?
- What problems does the student have and what is the most pressing problem right now?

Evaluating the Self Through Student Self-Reports

In addition to the process of observation, teachers can employ techniques of self-report inventories. Self-report inventories are instruments administered to students that ask for written feedback regarding the students' personal feelings. They allow teachers to make inferences about the students based on the statements the students give about themselves. Again, caution is in order. Self-report inventories have a number of weaknesses and limitations; contaminating variables can affect a student's responses, including: 1) the student's familiarity with and

awareness of the items on the inventory, 2) the student's ability to use symbols for personal expression, 3) the student's personal feelings regarding social expectancy, 4) the cooperation of the student and other such factors. However, in spite of these limitations, self-reports are valuable in helping teachers understand student self-concept; like observation techniques, they also provide rich insights into how students perceive themselves and their environments. Appendix D lists some of the more commonly used and accepted self-report inventories.

Summary

This paper has been the result of investigations into the affective domain as a critical and interrelated component of effective schooling. We have found such dependent variables as student self-concept and self-esteem, as well as those of teacher expectations and attitudes have a direct and measurable effect on the amount of learning that takes place in the classroom.

We have suggested that teacher expectations are ubiquitous and that they are neither good nor bad in and of themselves. The critical features of teacher expectations are their degree of accuracy and flexibility; they must be open to adjustment based on new and re-evaluated evidence. Self-fulfilling prophecy effects occur when teachers hold inaccurate and inflexible attitudes and expectations. We have noted how unrealistically high or low expectations are self-defeating; therefore, we have recommended that teachers first need to become aware of such inappropriate expectations and then work toward overcoming them by carefully monitoring their behavior with students. We also noted that no one set of teaching behaviors can be effectively employed; teachers need to assess the correctness of their behavior in relation to individual student performance.

In addition to findings on teacher expectations, we have presented evidence that shows contact with students causes teachers to form affective attitudinal responses toward them. Like teacher expectations, attitudes can begin to act as self-fulfilling prophecies if the teacher

demonstrates rigid and inflexible behaviors toward students in stereotypical ways. Included in our discussion are ways teachers can prevent improper attitudes and improve their expectations of students.

Student self-concept has been presented as a significant and dynamic factor in academic achievement. The relationship between the two has been proven conclusively; successful students are likely to view themselves in positive ways and consequently, show greater gains in increased self-confidence and cognitive growth. Included in this discussion were three ways teachers can help students build positive and realistic self-concepts:

1) Preventing negative self-concepts in the first place
2) Improving teachers' beliefs about themselves and their students
3) Creating favorable classroom climates

And, finally, we have recommended the use of self-report inventories and observation techniques to help teachers gain insights into how students view themselves and their environments.

Our intention has been to explicitly demonstrate the interrelationship among components of effective schooling practices and the affective domain. The connection is paramount if schools are to reach excellence in teaching young people.

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Appendix A

FLANDERS' CATEGORIES FOR TEACHER INTERACTION ANALYSIS

1. Accepts Feelings: Accepts and clarifies the feeling tone of the students in a nonthreatening manner. Feelings may be positive or negative. Predicting or recalling feelings are included.

2. Praises or Encourages: Praises or encourages student action or behavior. Jokes that release tension, not at the expense of another individual, nodding head or saying, "um hm?" or "go on" are included.

3. Accepts or Uses Ideas of Student: Clarifying, building, or developing ideas suggested by a student. As teacher brings more of his or her own ideas into play, shift to Category 5.

4. Asks Questions: Asking a question about content or procedure with the intent that a student answer.

5. Lecturing: Giving facts or opinions about content or procedure; expressing his or her own ideas; asking rhetorical questions.

6. Giving Directions: Directions, commands, or orders to which a student is expected to comply.

7. Criticizing or Justifying Authority: Statements intended to change student behavior from nonacceptable to acceptable pattern; bawling someone out; stating why the teacher is doing what he is doing; extreme self-reference.

8. Student Talk: Response; talk by students in response to teacher. Teacher initiates the contact or solicits student statement.

9. Student Talk: Initiation; talk by students which they initiate. If "calling on" student is only to indicate who may talk next, observer must decide whether student wanted to talk. If he or she did, use this category.

10. Silence or Confusion: Pauses, short periods of silence and periods of confusion in which communication cannot be understood by the observer.

Source: Flanders, N.A. Analyzing Teaching Behavior. Reading, Mass.: Addison-Wesley, 1970.

Appendix B

THE METFESSEL, MICHAEL AND KIRSNER INSTRUMENTATION OF BLOOM'S TAXONOMY OF EDUCATIONAL OBJECTIVES

Cognitive Functioning Categories [1,2]
Adaptation of Bloom's Taxonomy [3]

Instrumentation of the Taxonomy of Educational Objectives: Cognitive Domain

Taxonomy Classification		Examples of Infinitives	Examples of of Direct Objectives
1.00	Knowledge		
1.10	Knowledge of Specifics		
1.11	Knowledge of Terminology	to define, to distinguish, to acquire, to identify	vocabulary terms, terminology, meaning(s), definition, referents, elements
1.12	Knowledge of Specific Facts	to recall, to recognize, to acquire, to identify	facts, factual information (sources, names, dates, events persons, places, time periods), properties, examples, phenomena
1.20	Knowledge of Ways and Means of Dealing with Specifics		
1.21	Knowledge of Conventions	to recall, to identify to recognize to acquire	form(s), conventions uses, usage, rules ways, devices, symbols representations, style(s) format(s)

1.22	Knowledge of Trends, Sequences	to recall, to recognize, to acquire, to identify	action(s), processes movements, continuity, development(s) trend(s) sequence(s), causes, relationship(s), forces, influences
1.23	Knowledge of Classifications	to recall, to recognize, to acquire, to identify	area(s), types(s), features(s), class(es), set(s), division(s), arrangement(s), classification(s), category/categories
1.24	Knowledge of Criteria	to recall, to recognize, to acquire, to identify	criteria, basics, elements
1.25	Knowledge of Methodology	to recall, to recognize, to acquire, to identify	methods, techniques, approaches. uses, procedures, treatments
1.30	Knowledge of the Universals and Abstractions in a Field		
1.31	Knowledge of Principles,Generalizations	to recall, to recognize, to acquire, to identify	principle(s), generalization(s), propositions(s), fundamental(s), laws, principal elements, implication(s)
1.32	Knowledge of Theories and Structures	to recall, to recognize, to acquire, to identify	theories, bases, inter-relations, structure(s), organization(s), formulation(s)
2.00	Comprehension		
2.10	Translation	to translate, to transform, to give in own words, to illustrate, to prepare, to read, to represent, to change, to rephrase, to restate	meaning(s), sample(s) definitions, abstractions, representations, words, phrases
2.20	Interpretation	to interpret, to reorder to rearrange, to differentiate, to distinguish, to make, to draw, to explain, to demonstrate	relevancies, relationships, essentials, aspects, new view(s), qualifications, conclusions, methods, theories, abstractions

2.30	Extrapolation	to estimate, to infer, to conclude, to predict, to differentiate, to determine, to extend, to interpolate, to extrapolate, to restructure	consequences, implications, conclusions, factors, ramifications, meanings, corollaries, effects, probabilities
3.00	Application	to apply, to generalize, to relate, to choose, to develop, to organize, to use, to employ, to transfer, to restructure, to classify	principles, laws, conclusions, effects, methods, theories, abstractions, situations, generalizations, processes, phenomena, procedures
4.00	Analysis		
4.10	Analysis of Elements	to distinguish, to detect, to identify, to classify, to discriminate, to recognize, to categorize, to deduce	elements, hypothesis/hypotheses, conclusions, assumptions, statements (of fact), statements (of intent) arguments, particulars
4.20	Analysis of Relationships	to analyze, to contrast, to compare, to distinguish, to deduce	relationships, interrelationships, relevance relevancies, themes, evidence, fallacies, arguments, cause-effect(s), consistency/consistencies, parts, ideas, assumptions
4.30	Analysis of Organizational Principles	to analyze, to distinguish, to detect, to deduce	form(s), pattern(s), purpose(s), point(s), of view(s), techniques, bias(es), structure(s), theme(s), arrangement(s), organization(s)
5.00	Synthesis		
5.10	Production of a Unique Communication	to write, to tell, to relate, to produce, to constitute, to transmit, to originate, to modify, to document	structure(s), pattern(s), product(s), performance(s), design(s), work(s), communication(s) effort(s), specifics, composition(s)
5.20	Production of a Plan, or Proposed Set of Operations	to propose, to plan, to produce, to design, to modify, to specify	plan(s), objectives, specification(s), schematic(s), operations, ways, solution(s), means

5.30	Derivation of a Set of Abstract Relations	to produce, to derive, to develop, to combine, to organize, to synthesize, to classify, to deduce, to develop, to formulate, to modify	phenomena, taxonomies, concept(s), scheme(s), theories, relationships, abstractions, generalizations, hypothesis/ hypotheses, perceptions, ways, discoveries
6.0	Evaluation		
6.10	Judgements in Terms of Internal Evidence	to judge, to argue, to validate, to assess, to decide	accuracy/accuracies, consistency/consistencies, fallacies, reliability, flaws, errors, precision, exactness
6.20	Judgements in Terms of External Criteria	to judge, to argue, to consider, to compare, to contrast, to standardize, to appraise	ends, means, efficiency, economy/economies, utility, alternatives, courses of action, standards,theories, generalizations

Sources:

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[1]Interpersonal Skills Training for Teachers. Interim Report Number 2 of the National Consortium for Humanizing Education, Monroe, Louisiana, 1974.

[2]Metfessel, N.S. Michael, W.B. and Kirsner, D.A. Instrumentation of Bloom and Krathwohl's Taxonomies for Writing of Educational Objectives. Psychology in the Schools, 1969, 7(3), 227-231.

[3]Bloom, B.S., Englehart, M.D., Furst, E.J. Hill, W.H. and Krathwohl, D.R. A Taxonomy of Educational Objectives: Handbook I, The Cognitive Domain. New York: Longmons, Green, 1956.

CARKHUFF INTERPERSONAL SKILLS SCALE

Rating levels	Functions Does teacher or helper response serve this function?	Format Does teacher or helper response serve this format?
1.0	No expression or expression unrelated to content	"I _____" or "What _____?"
1.5	Expression related to content (usually as guidance or advice)	"I think you should _____."
2.0	Responding to content	"You're saying _____."
2.5	Responding to feeling	"You feel _____."
3.0	Responding to feeling and meaning	"You feel _____ because _____."
3.5	Personalizing problems	"You feel _____ because you cannot _____."
4.0	Personalizing goals	"You feel _____ because you cannot _____ and you want to _____."
4.5	Operationalizing goal	"Your goal is _____."
5.0	Developing steps	"Your steps are _____."

Sources: Carkhuff, Robert R. The Art of Helping III. Amherst, Mass.: Human Resource Development Press, 1977.

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Appendix D

SOME COMMON SELF-REPORT INVENTORIES

The Self-Esteem Inventory. The SEI was developed by Stanley Coopersmith of the University of California. It was especially constructed for the research reported in The Antecedents of Self-esteem (Coopersmith 1967). All the statements in the scale have been worded for use with children ages 8 to 10.

The Bledsoe Self Concept Scale. The BSCS, which was designed by Joseph Bledsoe of the University of Georgia, has been used with success from the third through the eighth grades, (Bledsoe 1967). It consists of a checklist of 30 trait-descriptive adjectives.

The Self-Appraisal Scale. Another recent self-report inventory is the SAS, developed by Helen Davidson and Judith Greenberg of the City College of the City University of New York for their research on scholastic achievers from a deprived background (Davidson and Greenberg 1967.) It consists of 24 items, each of which has been tested for its intelligibility to 5th grade children.

The How-I-See-Myself-Scale. This popular instrument was developed by Ira Gordon of the University of Florida from 1958 to 1967. It was devised

from the categories developed by Jersild (1952) out of the compositions of children. The scale consists of a 40 (elementary form) or 42-item(secondary form) five-point scale. Additional information may be found in Gordon (1966, 1968) and Yeatts (1967).

Q-Sort. Q-sort is not so much an instrument as it is a method. It requires the subject to sort a number of self-reference statements (usually 70 to 150 items) into a series of piles or classes along a continuum of appropriateness of self-description, from those "most like" him [or her] to those "least like" him [or her]. The number of items sorted into each pile is specified in such a way that the resulting frequency distributions approximates that of a normal distribution. For an extensive reference on this method, see Cummins (1963).

Semantic Differential. The semantic differential technique of measuring the "meaning systems" of individuals was developed by Charles Osgood of the University of Illinois. The method is described in detail in Osgood, Suci, and Tannenbaum (1957). Basically, it involves sets of polar adjectives such as Happy-sad, Hard-soft, and Slow-fast, with five to seven spaces between each set. The concept to be measured is placed at the top of the scale and the subject is to place a check somewhere along the continuum to indicate his [or her] attitude. It is a popular and flexible method of measuring the dimensions of one's system of meanings about herself [or himself] and the world in which she [or he] lives.

Source:

Purkey, William W. Self-Concept and School Achievement. Prentice-Hall, Inc. 1970.